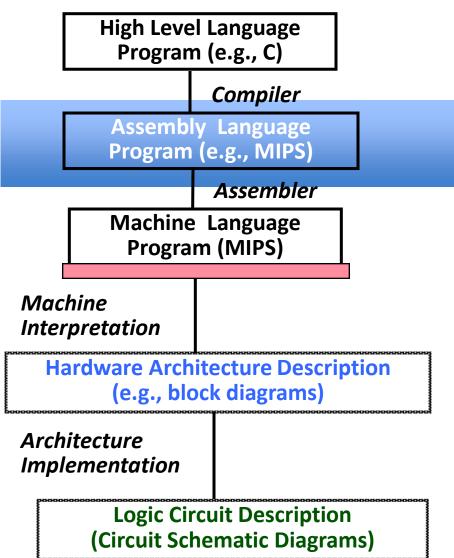
计算机组成

机器语言(1)

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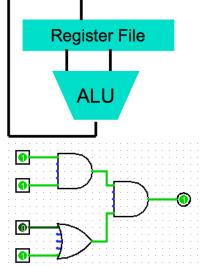
Levels of Representation/Interpretation



```
temp = v[k];
v[k] = v[k+1];
v[k+1] = temp;
```

lw	\$t0, 0(\$2)	Anything can be represented
lw	\$t1, 4(\$2)	as a <i>number</i> ,
	\$t1, 0(\$2)	i.e., data or instructions
SW	\$t0, 4(\$2)	i.e., data or mistructions

```
0000 1001 1100 0110 1010 1111 0101 1000 1010 1111 0101 1000 0000 1001 1100 0110 1100 0110 1100 1101 1000 0000 1001 0101 1000 0000 1001 1001 1000 0000 1011 1111
```



提纲

- 内容主要取材: CS61C的5讲
 - http://inst.eecs.berkeley.edu/~cs61c/su12
- 机器语言
- ▶ 寄存器
- ▶ 指令和立即数
- 数据传输指令
- 判断指令

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Machine Language (1/2)

- "Word" a computer understands: instruction
- Vocabulary of all "words" a computer understands: instruction set architecture (ISA)
- Why might you want the same ISA?
 Why might you want different ISAs?
 - e.g. iPhone and iPad use the same
 - e.g. iPhone and Macbook use different

Machine Language (2/2)

Single ISA

- Leverage common compilers, operating systems, etc.
- BUT fairly easy to retarget these for different ISAs (e.g. Linux, gcc)

Multiple ISAs

- Specialized instructions for specialized applications
- Different tradeoffs in resources used (e.g. functionality, memory demands, complexity, power consumption, etc.)
- Competition and innovation is good, especially in emerging environments (e.g. mobile devices)

Why Study Assembly?

- Understand computers at a deeper level
 - Learn to write more compact and efficient code
 - Can sometimes hand optimize better than a compiler
- More sensible for minimalistic applications
 - e.g. distributed sensing and systems
 - Eliminating OS, compilers, etc. reduce size and power consumption
 - Embedded computers outnumber PCs!

Reduced Instruction Set Computing

- The early trend was to add more and more instructions to do elaborate operations – this became known as Complex Instruction Set Computing (CISC)
- Opposite philosophy later began to dominate: Reduced Instruction Set Computing (RISC)
 - Simpler (and smaller) instruction set makes it easier to build fast hardware
 - Let software do the complicated operations by composing simpler ones

RISC Design Principles

- Basic RISC principle: "A simpler CPU (the hardware that interprets machine language) is a faster CPU" (CPU → Core)
- Focus of the RISC design is reduction of the number and complexity of instructions in the ISA
- A number of the more common strategies include:
 - Fixed instruction length, generally a single word;
 Simplifies process of fetching instructions from memory
 - Simplified addressing modes;
 Simplifies process of fetching operands from memory
 - Fewer and simpler instructions in the instruction set;
 Simplifies process of executing instructions
 - Only load and store instructions access memory;
 E.g., no add memory to register, add memory to memory, etc.
 - Let the compiler do it. Use a good compiler to break complex highlevel language statements into a number of simple assembly language statements

Mainstream ISAs

- Intel 80x86
 - Used in Macbooks and PCs
 - Found in Core i3, Core i5, Core i7, etc.
- Advanced RISC Machine (ARM)
 - Smart phone-like devices: iPhone, iPad, iPod, etc.
 - The most popular RISC (20x more common than 80x86)
- IBM/Motorola/Apple PowerPC
 - Airborne equipment: Flight Control, Radar, etc.
 - Engine controller
 - Embedded devcies: Network switch/router, etc.

Instruction Set in CS 61C

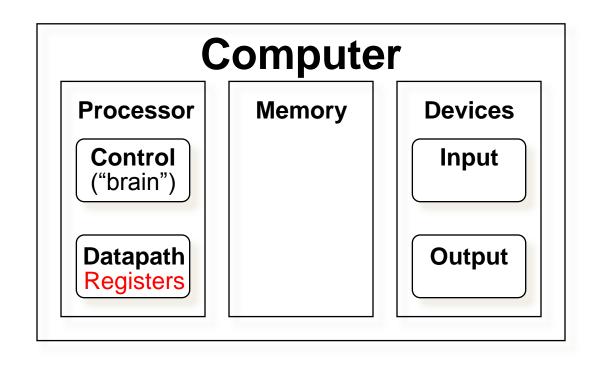
- MIPS
 - Invented by John Hennessy @ Stanford
 - (Why not Berkeley/Sun RISC invented by Dave Patterson? Ask him!)
 - MIPS is a real world ISA
 - Standard instruction set for networking equipment
- Elegant example of *Reduced Instruction Set Computer* (RISC) instruction set

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Five Components of a Computer

- We begin our study of how a computer works!
 - Control
 - Datapath
 - Memory
 - Input
 - Output



Registers are part of the Datapath

Computer Hardware Operands

- In high-level languages, number of variables limited only by available memory
- ISAs have a fixed, small number of operands called registers
 - Special locations built directly into hardware
 - Benefit: Registers are EXTREMELY FAST (faster than 1 billionth of a second)
 - Drawback: Operations can only be performed on these predetermined number of registers

MIPS Registers

- MIPS has 32 registers
 - Each register is 32 bits wide and hold a word
- Tradeoff between speed and availability
 - Smaller number means faster hardware but insufficient to hold data for typical C programs
- Registers have no type (C concept); the operation being performed determines how register contents are treated

MIPS Registers

- Register denoted by '\$' can be referenced by number (\$0-\$31) or name:
 - Registers that hold programmer variables:

– Registers that hold temporary variables:

- You'll learn about the other 14 registers later
- In general, using register names makes code more readable

提纲

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MIPS Instructions

Instruction Syntax is rigid:

```
op dst, src1, src2
```

- 1 operator, 3 operands
 - op = operation name ("operator")
 - dst = register getting result ("destination")
 - src1 = first register for operation ("source 1")
 - src2 = second register for operation ("source 2")
- Keep hardware simple via regularity

MIPS Instructions

- One operation per instruction, at most one instruction per line
- Assembly instructions are related to C operations (=, +, -, *, /, &, |, etc.)
 - Must be, since C code decomposes into assembly!
- A single line of C may break up into several lines of MIPS

MIPS Instructions Example

- Your very first instructions!
 (assume here that the variables a, b, and c are assigned to registers \$\$1,\$\$2, and \$\$3, respectively)
- Integer Addition (add)

```
-C: a = b + c
```

- -MIPS: add \$s1, \$s2, \$s3
- Integer Subtraction (sub)

```
-C: a = b - c
```

-MIPS: sub \$s1, \$s2, \$s3

MIPS Instructions Example

• Suppose a \rightarrow \$s0, b \rightarrow \$s1, c \rightarrow \$s2, d \rightarrow \$s3, and e \rightarrow \$s4. Convert the following C statement to MIPS:

a =
$$(b + c) - (d + e)$$
;
add \$t1, \$s3, \$s4 Ordering of instructions matters (must follow order of operations)
Sub \$s0, \$t2, \$t1 Utilize temporary registers

Comments in MIPS

- Comments in MIPS follow hash mark (#) until the end of line
 - Improves readability and helps you keep track of variables/registers!

```
add $t1, $s3, $s4 # $t1=d+e
add $t2, $s1, $s2 # $t2=b+c
sub $s0, $t2, $t1 # a=(b+c)-(d+e)
```

The Zero Register

- Zero appears so often in code and is so useful that it has its own register!
- Register zero (\$0 or \$zero) always has the value 0 and cannot be changed!
 - i.e. any instruction with \$0 as dst has no effect
- Example Uses:

```
- add $s3, $0, $0 # c=0
```

- add \$s1, \$s2, \$0 # a=b

Immediates

- Numerical constants are called immediates
- Separate instruction syntax for immediates:

```
opi dst, src, imm
```

- Operation names end with 'i', replace 2nd source register with an immediate (check Green Sheet for un/signed)
- Example Uses:

```
- addi $s1, $s2, 5 # a=b+5
```

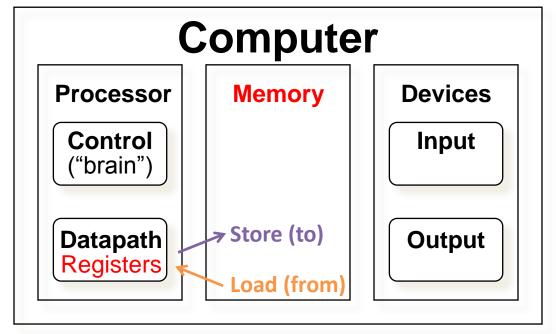
- -addi \$s3, \$s3, 1 # c++
- Why no subi instruction?

提纲

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Five Components of a Computer

- Data Transfer instructions are between registers (Datapath) and Memory
 - Allow us to fetch and store operands in memory



Data Transfer

- C variables map onto registers;
 What about large data structures like arrays?
 - Don't forget memory, our one-dimensional array indexed by addresses starting at 0
- MIPS instructions only operate on registers!
- Specialized data transfer instructions move data between registers and memory
 - Store: register TO memory
 - Load: register FROM memory

Data Transfer

Instruction syntax for data transfer:

```
op reg, off(bAddr)
```

- $\circ p = operation name ("operator")$
- reg = register for operation source or destination
- bAddr = register with pointer to memory ("base address")
- $\circ ff = address offset (immediate) in bytes ("offset")$
- Accesses memory at address bAddr+off
- Reminder: A register holds a word of raw data (no type) – make sure to use a register (and offset) that point to a valid memory address

Memory is Byte-Addressed

- What was the smallest data type we saw in C?
 - A char, which was a byte (8 bits)
 - Everything in multiples of 8 bits(e.g. 1 word = 4 bytes)
- Memory addresses are indexed by bytes, not words
- Word addresses are 4 bytes apart
 - Word addr is same as left-most byte
 - Offsets are multiples of 4 to be "word-aligned"
- Pointer arithmetic not done for you in assembly
 - Must take data size into account yourself

Addr of lowest byte in word is addr of word



	•••	•••	•••
12	13	14	15
8	9	10	11
4	5	6	7
0	1	2	3

Data Transfer Instructions

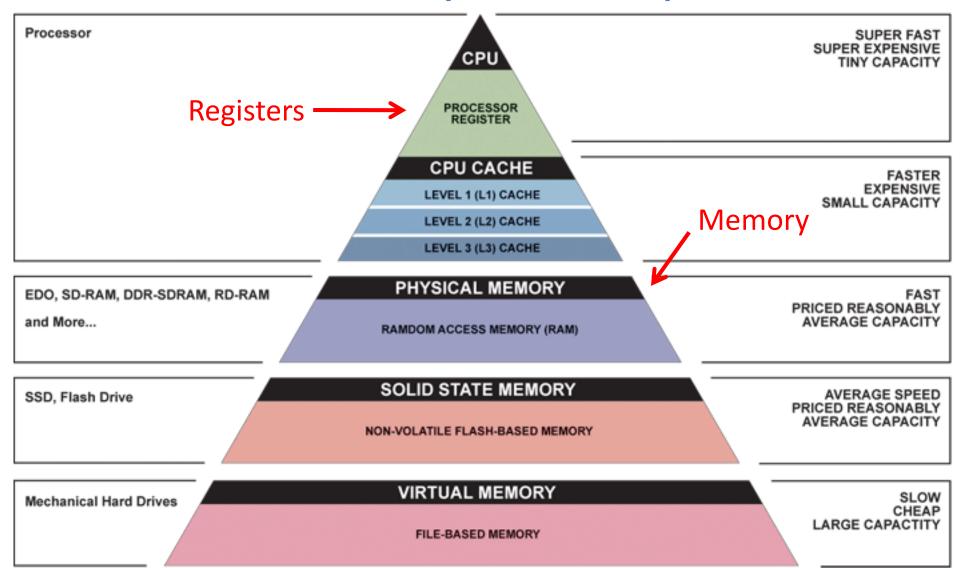
- Load Word (lw)
 - Takes data at address bAddr+off FROM memory and places it into reg
- Store Word (sw)
 - Takes data in reg and stores it TO memory at address
 bAddr+off
- Example Usage:

```
# addr of int A[] \rightarrow $s3, a \rightarrow $s0 lw $t0,12($s3) # $t0=A[3] add $t0,$s2,$t0 # $t0=A[3]+a sw $t0,40($s3) # A[10]=A[3]+a
```

Registers vs. Memory

- What if more variables than registers?
 - Keep most frequently used in registers and move the rest to memory (called *spilling* to memory)
- Why not all variables in memory?
 - Smaller is faster: registers 100-500 times faster
 - Registers more versatile
 - In 1 arithmetic instruction: read 2 operands, perform 1 operation, and 1 write
 - In 1 data transfer instruction: 1 read/write, no operation

Great Idea #3: Principle of Locality/ Memory Hierarchy





Question: Which of the following is TRUE?

- \square add \$t0,\$t1,4(\$t2) is valid MIPS
- Can byte address 8GB with a MIPS word
- □ off must be a multiple of 4 for lw \$t0,off(\$s0) to be valid
- ☐ If MIPS halved the number of registers available, it would be twice as fast

Chars and Strings

- Recall: A string is just an array of characters and a char in C uses 8-bit ASCII
- Method 1: Move words in and out of memory using bit-masking and shifting

```
lw $s0,0($s1)
andi $s0,$s0,0xFF # lowest byte
```

Method 2: Load/store byte instructions

```
1b $s0,0($s1)
sb $s0,1($s1) Offsets no longer need to be multiples of 4
```

Byte Instructions

- lb/sb utilize the least significant byte of the register
 - On sb, upper 24 bits are ignored
 - On 1b, upper 24 bits are filled by sign-extension
- For example, let * (\$s0) = 0x00000180: lb \$s1,1(\$s0) # \$s1=0x00000001lb \$s2,0(\$s0) # \$s2=0xFFFFF80sb \$s2,2(\$s0) # * (\$s0)=0x00800180
- Normally you don't want to sign-extend chars
 - Use lbu (load byte unsigned)

Endianness

- Big Endian: Most-significant byte at least address of word
 - word address = address of most significant byte
- Little Endian: Least-significant byte at least address of word
 - word address = address of least significant byte



- MIPS is bi-endian (can go either way)
 - Using MARS simulator in lab, which is little endian
- Why is this confusing?
 - Data stored in reverse order than you write it out!
 - **Data** 0×01020304 **stored as** 04 03 02 01 **in memory**

提纲

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Computer Decision Making

- In C, we had control flow
 - Outcomes of comparative/logical statements
 determined which blocks of code to execute
- In MIPS, we can't define blocks of code; all we have are labels
 - Defined by text followed by a colon (e.g. main:) and refers to the instruction that follows
 - Generate flow control by jumping labels
 - C has these too, but they are considered bad style

Decision Making Instructions

- Branch If Equal (beq)
 - -beq reg1, reg2, label
 - If value in reg1 = value in reg2, go to label
- Branch If Not Equal (bne)
 - -bne reg1, reg2, label
 - If value in reg1 ≠ value in reg2, go to label
- Jump (j)
 - -j label
 - Unconditional jump to label

Breaking Down the If Else

C Code:

```
if (i==j) { # i \rightarrow \$s0, j \rightarrow \$s1

a = b /* then */ # a \rightarrow \$s2, b \rightarrow \$s3

} else { beq $s0,$s1,???

a = -b /* else */ ??? — This label u
```

In English:

- If TRUE, execute the <u>THEN</u> block
- If FALSE, execute the <u>ELSE</u> block

MIPS (beq):

```
# i→$s0, j→$s1
beq $s0,$s1,???
??? — This label unnecessary
sub $s2, $0, $s3
i end
then:
add $s2, $s3, $0
end:
```

Breaking Down the If Else

C Code:

```
if (i==j) { # i\rightarrow$s0, j\rightarrow$s1

a = b /* then */ # a\rightarrow$s2, b\rightarrow$s3

} else { bne $s0,$s1,???

a = -b /* else */ ???
```

In English:

- If TRUE, execute the <u>THEN</u> block
- If FALSE, execute the <u>ELSE</u> block

MIPS (bne):

```
# i→$s0, j→$s1
bne $s0,$s1,???
555
add $s2, $s3, $0
i end
else:
sub $s2, $0, $s3
end:
```

Loops in MIPS

- There are three types of loops in C:
 - while, do...while, and for
 - Each can be rewritten as either of the other two,
 so the same concepts of decision-making apply
- You will examine how to write these in MIPS in discussion
- Key Concept: Though there are multiple ways to write a loop in MIPS, the key to decisionmaking is the conditional branch

Summary

- Computers understand the *instructions* of their *ISA*
- RISC Design Principles
 - Smaller is faster, keep it simple
- MIPS Registers: \$s0-\$s7, \$t0-\$t9, \$0
- MIPS Instructions

– Arithmetic: add, sub, addi

– Data Transfer: lw, sw, lb, sb, lbu

- Branching: beq, bne, j

Memory is byte-addressed

BONUS SLIDES

You are responsible for the material contained on the following slides, though we may not have enough time to get to them in lecture.

They have been prepared in a way that should be easily readable and the material will be touched upon in the following lecture.

- Let's put our all of our new MIPS knowledge to use in an example: "Fast String Copy"
- C code is as follows:

```
/* Copy string from p to q */
char *p, *q;
while((*q++ = *p++) != '\0');
```

- What do we know about its structure?
 - Single while loop
 - Exit condition is an equality test

Start with code skeleton:

```
# copy String p to q
# p\rightarrow$s0, q\rightarrow$s1 (pointers)

Loop: # $t0 = *p

# *q = $t0

# p = p + 1

# q = q + 1

# if *p==0, go to Exit

j Loop # go to Loop
```

Exit:

• Fill in lines:

```
# copy String p to q
# p\rightarrow$s0, q\rightarrow$s1 (pointers)

Loop: lb $t0,0($s0) # $t0 = *p

sb $t0,0($s1) # *q = $t0

addi $s0,$s0,1 # p = p + 1

addi $s1,$s1,1 # q = q + 1

beq $t0,$0,Exit # if *p==0, go to Exit

j Loop # go to Loop
```

Exit:

Finished code:

```
# copy String p to q
# p \rightarrow $s0, q \rightarrow $s1 (pointers)
Loop: 1b $t0,0($s0) # $t0 = *p
      $b $t0,0($s1) # *q = $t0
      addi $s0,$s0,1 # p = p + 1
      addi $s1,$s1,1 # q = q + 1
      beg $t0,$0,Exit # if *p==0, go to Exit
                        # go to Loop
      j Loop
Exit: # N chars in p => N*6 instructions
```

Alternate code using bne:

MIPS Arithmetic Instructions

- The following commands place results in the special registers HI and LO
 - Access these values with "move from HI" (mfhi dst) and "move from LO" (mflo dst)
- Multiplication (mult)
 - -mult src1, src2
 - src1*src2: lower 32-bits in LO, upper 32-bits in HI
- Division (div)
 - div src1, src2
 - src1/src2: puts quotient in LO, remainder in HI

MIPS Arithmetic Instructions

• Example:

```
# mod using div: $s2 = $s0 mod $s1
mod:
div $s0,$s1 # LO = $s0/$s1
mfhi $s2 # HI = $s0 mod $s1
```

Arithmetic Overflow

- Recall: Overflow occurs when there is a mistake in arithmetic due to the limited precision in computers
 - i.e. not enough bits to represent answer
- MIPS detects overflow (throws error)
 - Arithmetic "unsigned" instructions ignore overflow

Overflow Detection		No Overflow Detection	
add	dst,src1,src2	addu dst, src	1,src2
addi	dst,src1,src2	addiu dst,src	1,src2
sub	dst,src1,src2	subu dst,src	1,src2

Arithmetic Overflow

• Example:

Recall: this is the most negative number

```
\# $s0=0x80000000, $s1=0x1
      $t0,$s0,$s0 # overflow (error)
add
addu $t1,$s0,$s0 # $t1=0
      $t2,$s0,-1 # overflow (error)
addi
addiu $t2,$s0,-1 # $t3=0x7FFFFFFF
      $t4,$s0,$s1 # overflow (error)
sub
      $t5,$s0,$s1 # $t5=0x7FFFFFFF
subu
```

MIPS Bitwise Instructions

Note: $a \rightarrow \$s1$, $b \rightarrow \$s2$, $c \rightarrow \$s3$

Instruction	C	MIPS
And	a = b & c;	and \$s1,\$s2,\$s3
And Immediate	a = b & 0x1;	andi \$s1,\$s2,0x1
Or	a = b c;	or \$s1,\$s2,\$s3
Or Immediate	a = b 0x5;	ori \$s1,\$s2,0x5
Not Or	$a = \sim (b c);$	nor \$s1,\$s2,\$s3
Exclusive Or	a = b ^ c;	xor \$s1,\$s2,\$s3
Exclusive Or Immediate	$a = b ^ 0xF;$	xori \$s1,\$s2,0xF

- In binary, shifting an unsigned number left is the same as multiplying by the corresponding power of 2
 - Shifting operations are faster
 - Does not work with shifting right/division
- Logical shift: Add zeros as you shift
- Arithmetic shift: Sign-extend as you shift
 - Only applies when you shift right (preserves sign)
- Can shift by immediate or value in a register

Instruction Name	MIPS
Shift Left Logical	sll \$s1,\$s2,1
Shift Left Logical Variable	sllv \$s1,\$s2,\$s3
Shift Right Logical	srl \$s1,\$s2,2
Shift Right Logical Variable	srlv \$s1,\$s2,\$s3
Shift Right Arithmetic	sra \$s1,\$s2,3
Shift Right Arithmetic Variable	srav \$s1,\$s2,\$s3

- When using immediate, only values 0-31 are accepted
- When using variable, only lowest 5 bits are used (read as unsigned)

```
# sample calls to shift instructions
addi $t0,$0,-256 # $t0=0xFFFFF00
sll $s0,$t0,3
                  # $s0=0xFFFFF800
              # $s1=0x00FFFFFF
srl $s1,$t0,8
sra $s2,$t0,8
                  # $s2=0xFFFFFFFF
addi $t1,$0 ,-22
                # $t1=0xFFFFFFEA
                  # low 5: 0b01010
sllv $s3,$t0,$t1 # $s3=0xFFFC0000
# same as sll $s3,$t0,10
```

• Example 1:

```
# lb using lw: lb $s1,1($s0)
lw $s1,0($s0) # get word
andi $s1,$s1,0xFF00 # get 2<sup>nd</sup> byte
srl $s1,$s1,8 # shift into lowest
```

Example 2:

```
# sb using sw: sb $$1,3($$s0)

lw $$t0,0($$s0) # get current word

andi $$t0,$$t0,0xFFFFFF # zero top byte

sll <math>$$t1,$$s1,24 # shift into highest

or $$t0,$$t0,$$t1 # combine

sw $$t0,0($$s0) # store back
```

Extra for Experts:

- Rewrite the two preceding examples to be more general
- Assume that the byte offset (e.g. 1 and 3 in the examples, respectively) is contained in \$s2

• Hint:

- The variable shift instructions will come in handy
- Remember, the offset can be negative

作业

- 《计算机组成与设计》
- WORD: 2.1, 2.4, 2.5, 2.6
- MARS
 - **2.5.2**